

# Introduction to Theoretical Computer Science

## Lecture 14: $\lambda$ -Calculus

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# Introduction

While Turing was thinking about **machines**, Alonzo Church was computing with a **programming language** – a precursor of Haskell – called  *$\lambda$ -calculus*.

We often think of programming languages as methods to program a computer, but languages can also be thought of **as the computer** itself.

## Comparing models

Church and Turing famously proved that Turing Machines and  $\lambda$ -calculus are equivalent in computational power.

However,  $\lambda$ -calculus is different from other models in that it is *higher-order*: This means that computations ( $\lambda$ -terms) may take other computations as input. For TMs and RMs, we must work with encodings to achieve this.

# Syntax

$\lambda$ -calculus computations are expressed as  *$\lambda$ -terms*:

$$\begin{array}{ll} t & ::= x \quad (\text{variables}) \\ & | \quad t_1 \ t_2 \quad (\text{application}) \\ & | \quad \lambda x. t \quad (\lambda\text{-abstraction}) \end{array}$$

## $\lambda$ -abstraction

A  $\lambda$ -term ( $\lambda x. y$ ) can be thought of as a **function** that, given an input bound to the variable  $x$ , returns the term  $y$ .

We will give a formal definition of this in terms of *substitution* later.

For now, we will extend  $\lambda$ -terms with **arithmetic expressions**:

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. (x + y) \div 2) \ 10 \ 20$$

but this is **not fundamental** to the computational model. We will remove this feature later without reducing expressivity.

# Higher-order functions

Function application is **left associative**:

$$f\ a\ b\ c \quad = \quad ((f\ a)\ b)\ c$$

$\lambda$ -abstraction extends **as far as possible**:

$$\lambda a. f\ a\ b \quad = \quad \lambda a. (f\ a\ b)$$

All functions are unary, like Haskell. Multiple argument functions are modelled with nested  $\lambda$ -abstractions:

$$\lambda x. \lambda y. f\ y\ x$$

$\lambda$ -calculus is **higher-order**, in that functions may be arguments to functions themselves:

$$\lambda f. \lambda g. \lambda x. f\ (g\ x)$$

# $\alpha$ -equivalence

What is the difference between these two programs?

$$(\lambda x. \lambda x. x + x) \qquad (\lambda a. \lambda y. y + y)$$

They are **semantically** identical, but differ in the choice of **bound variable names**. Such expressions are called  *$\alpha$ -equivalent*.

We write  $e_1 \equiv_\alpha e_2$  if  $e_1$  is  $\alpha$ -equivalent to  $e_2$ . The relation  $\equiv_\alpha$  is an *equivalence relation*.

The process of consistently renaming variables that preserves  $\alpha$ -equivalence is called  *$\alpha$ -renaming* or  *$\alpha$ -conversion*.

# Substitution

A variable  $x$  is *free* in a term  $e$  if  $x$  occurs in  $e$  but is not *bound* (by a  $\lambda$ -abstraction) in  $e$ .

## Example (Free Variables)

The variable  $x$  is free in  $\lambda y. x + y$ , but not in  $\lambda x. \lambda y. x + y$ .

A *substitution*, written  $e[t/x]$ , is the replacement of all *free* occurrences of  $x$  in  $e$  with the term  $t$ .

## Example (Substitution on Arithmetic Expressions)

$(5 \times x + 7) [y \times 4/x]$  is the same as  $(5 \times (y \times 4) + 7)$ .

# Problems with substitution

Consider these two  $\alpha$ -equivalent expressions.

$$(\lambda y. y \times x + 7) 5$$

and

$$(\lambda z. z \times x + 7) 5$$

What happens if you naïvely apply the substitution  $[y \times 3 / x]$  to both expressions? You get two **non- $\alpha$ -equivalent** expressions!

$$(\lambda y. y \times (y \times 3) + 7) 5$$

and

$$(\lambda z. z \times (y \times 3) + 7) 5$$

This problem is called **capture**.

# Variable Capture

*Capture* can occur for a substitution  $e \left[ \frac{t}{x} \right]$  whenever there is a bound variable in the term  $e$  with the same name as a free variable occurring in  $t$ .

Fortunately

It is **always possible** to avoid capture. Just  **$\alpha$ -rename** the offending bound variable to an unused name.



# $\beta$ -reduction

The rule to evaluate function applications is called  $\beta$ -reduction:

$$(\lambda x. t) u \quad \mapsto_{\beta} \quad t [u/x]$$

# $\beta$ -reduction

$\beta$ -reduction is a *congruence*:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \overline{(\lambda x. t) u \mapsto_{\beta} t [u/x]} \\
 \\
 \frac{t \mapsto_{\beta} t'}{s t \mapsto_{\beta} s t'} \quad \frac{s \mapsto_{\beta} s'}{s t \mapsto_{\beta} s' t} \quad \frac{t \mapsto_{\beta} t'}{\lambda x. t \mapsto_{\beta} \lambda x. t'}
 \end{array}$$

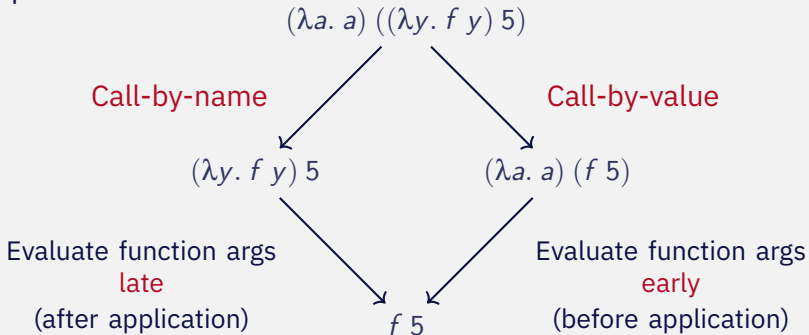
This means we can pick any reducible subexpression (called a *redex*) and perform  $\beta$ -reduction.

Example:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\lambda x. \lambda y. f (y x)) \text{ 5 } (\lambda x. x) &\mapsto_{\beta} (\lambda y. f (y \text{ 5})) (\lambda x. x) \\
 &\mapsto_{\beta} f ((\lambda x. x) \text{ 5}) \\
 &\mapsto_{\beta} f \text{ 5}
 \end{aligned}$$

# Confluence

There are often many different ways to reduce the same expression:



## The Church-Rosser Theorem

If a term  $t$   $\beta$ -reduces to two terms  $a$  and  $b$ , then there is a common term  $t'$  to which both  $a$  and  $b$  are  $\beta$ -reducible.

# Equivalence

Confluence means we can define another notion of *equivalence*, which equates more than  $\alpha$ -equivalence. Two terms are  $\alpha\beta$ -*equivalent*, written  $s \equiv_{\alpha\beta} t$  if they  $\beta$ -reduce to  $\alpha$ -equivalent terms.

## $\eta$

There is also another equation that cannot be proven from  $\beta$ -equivalence alone, called  $\eta$ -reduction:

$$(\lambda x. f\ x) \mapsto_{\eta} f$$

Adding this reduction to the system preserves confluence (and therefore uniqueness of normal forms), so we have a notion of  *$\alpha\beta\eta$ -equivalence* also.

# Normal Forms

A term that cannot be reduced further is called a *normal form*

## Divergence

Does every term in  $\lambda$ -calculus have a normal form?

$$(\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x)$$

Try to  $\beta$ -reduce this!

## Uniqueness of NFs

Does any term in  $\lambda$ -calculus have more than one normal form?

**No**: consider Church-Rosser.

# Making $\lambda$ -Calculus Usable

In order to demonstrate that  $\lambda$ -calculus is actually a usable programming language, we will demonstrate how to encode booleans and natural numbers as  $\lambda$ -terms, along with their operations.

## General Idea

We transform a data type into the type of its *eliminator*. In other words, we make a function that can serve the same purpose as the data type at its use sites.

# Booleans

How do we **use** booleans? **To choose between two results!**

So, a boolean will be a function that, given two arguments, returns the first one if it is true and the second one if it is false:

$$\text{True} \equiv \lambda a. \lambda b. a$$

$$\text{False} \equiv \lambda a. \lambda b. b$$

How do we write an if statement?

$$\text{If} \equiv \lambda c. \lambda t. \lambda e. c \ t \ e$$

Example (Test it out!)

Try  $\beta$ -normalising `If True False True`.

# Natural Numbers

How do we **use** natural numbers? **To do something  $n$  times!**

So, a natural number will be a function that takes a function  $f$  and a value  $x$ , and applies the function  $f$  to  $x$  that number of times:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Zero} &\equiv \lambda f. \lambda x. x \\ \text{One} &\equiv \lambda f. \lambda x. f\ x \\ \text{Two} &\equiv \lambda f. \lambda x. f\ (f\ x) \\ &\dots\end{aligned}$$

How do we write Suc?

$$\text{Suc} \equiv \lambda n. \lambda f. \lambda x. f\ (n\ f\ x)$$

How do we write Add?

$$\text{Add} \equiv \lambda m. \lambda n. \lambda f. \lambda x. m\ f\ (n\ f\ x)$$



# Natural Numbers

## Example

Try  $\beta$ -normalising Suc One.

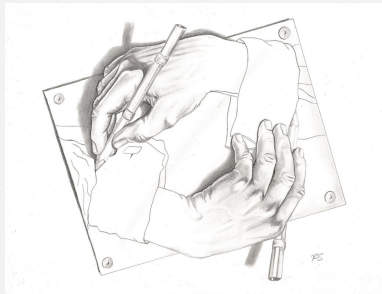
## Example

Try writing a different  $\lambda$ -term for defining Suc.

## Example

Try writing a  $\lambda$ -term for defining Multiply.

# A Final Puzzle



## Puzzle

Find a  $\lambda$ -term  $\mathcal{Y}$  such that

$$\mathcal{Y} f \mapsto_{\beta}^* f (\mathcal{Y} f)$$

Can you use this to define recursive functions? e.g. **factorial**?